Chapter -III

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The review of literature with regard to independent variables and the performance is made in this chapter. This would justify the need, relevance and justification of the study undertaken.

PERSONALITY:

Although there is not a definite hierarchy, certain personality traits, such as, emotional stability, tough mindedness, conscientiousness, controlled self-discipline, self-assurance trusting and a low tension level should be emphasized in relation to performance. Those who retain their motivation for sport competition will exhibit the characteristics of ambition, organization, deference dominance, endurance and aggression.

Booth (1958) reported personality characteristics with different sports, since psychological requirements of a sport are specific.

Kroll (1954) contends that there is a possibility that some discrete set of personality factors exist which is related to causing some people select and participate in sports.

Rushall (1967) demonstrated that male swimmers (Individual sport) were to be more individualistic and self-centred. He found that competitive swimmers possessed the traits of emotional stability, aggression, urgency and confidence.

Person (1967) studied the personality traits of National Representative Swimmers in Canada in 1962 by employing Cattel’s Sixteen Personality Factors
Questionnaire. The result of the study showed that champion swimmers differed from average population in fifteen of sixteen factor area. Champion swimmers apparently possessed marked extremes in personality factors scores.

Harris (1963) in a study of college women found that the more fit women as being more stable and less anxious than the less fit women.

Werner (1966) study of 270 west point cadets, who were betterment in American football group using Cattell’s Sixteen Personality Factors Inventory, shows that the football players were found to be more sociable, dominant, enthusiastic, adventurous, tough and group dependent.

Schendel (1965) compared sportswomen’s and non-sportswomen’s in Ninth twelfth grades and in college, using the California Inventory and found that ninth and twelfth grade sportswomen generally possessed more desirable personal, social and psychological characteristic than the non-sportswomen’s. However, at the college level, the non-sportswomen generally possessed more desirable characteristics than the sportswomen’s.

Person D.R. (1967) reported that, women from individual sports were significantly more dominant and aggressive, adventurous, sensitive, imaginative, self-sufficient and resourceful than the team sport sportswoman’s. They have also found the female sportswomen to be more intelligent, conscientious and aggressive than female non-sportswomen.

The 16 PF was administered to 38 female athletes who participated on the 1964 United States Olympic team by Peterson, Weber and Trousdale (1967). This
sample consisted of individual sports participants in swimming, diving, riding, fencing, canoeing, gymnastics and track and field. These subjects were compared to 59 team sport athletes who participated on either the 1964 Olympic Basketball team or one of the top ten AAU basketball teams for 1964. The two groups were found to differ on 7 of the 16 factors. The athletes from the individual sports were more introverted than the team sport athletes and both groups were characterized by emotional stability. These female athletes were found to be more intelligent, conscientious, persevering, and aggressive than female non-athletes of similar age and education background.

The findings of Peterson, Weber and Trousdale (1967) were corroborated by Ogilvie (1968). He compared their results with the 16 PF profiles of female swimmers from San Jose College who were found to have profile similar to the individual sport athletes in their study.

In a study, Malumphy (1968) administered the 16 PF and personal information questionnaire to 77 female athletes and 43 randomly selected non-athletes from five state universities. Comparisons were made between athletes in team sports, individual sports, team individual sports, subjectively judged sports and the non-athletes. The four groups of female athletes differed from the non-athletes on various factors, a result which is in agreement with the report of Peterson, Weber and Trousdale (1967).

However, they tested high level competitors whereas Malumphy’s sample only included one Olympic athlete. This might exactly explain the apparent contradiction. Malumphy also found that the team sport group was less extroverted
than the non-athletes. If his infact is the case, it would represent a major distinction between the personality of male and female athletes; that is with the exception of distance runner male athletes tend to be extroverted.

**Williams and her associates (1970)** administered the 16 PF and the EPPS to 30 female fencers who participated in the 1968 national championships. Comparisons were made between high and low level achievers, and they were found to differ only on the measure of dominance. Since they did not differ on any of the other 38 variables, this one variation was probably due to chance. However, this group of female athletes was found to differ from national norms on a number of 16 PF factors and EPPS measures. The authors concluded a definite fencer’s personality emerged from their analysis and this profile was different from that of participants in other sports. In this respect if was reported that the “Sport type” to which their profile was the most related was the male and female competitive race car driver. In general, these athletes tended to be reserved, self-sufficient, autonomous, assertive, and aggressive and they scored below average on affiliation and nurturance.

**Williams (1970)** employed 16 PF on 30 female athletes to compare high and low level achievers. It was found that except on the factor dominance, on significant difference was found on any other factors.

**Uppal and Gill (1986)** conducted a study on male and female badminton players who participated in National Games. A sample of 40 male and 40 female athletes was drawn for the study. The PF scale was administered and the results indicated that the national participants were suspicious, tough minded and average intelligent as compared to the collegiate players, who also formed equal sample with
the national participants. The results on female players of national participation and collegiate participation reveal that the national female players were more suspicious, tough minded and hard to fool than the collegiate players.

*Peterson et al. (1967)* administered 16 PF test on a sample of 38 female athletes who participated in individual and team sports. The aim of the study was to bring out the comparative results of female athletes of individual and team games. The results revealed that the female athletes of individual sports were found to be more intelligent, cohesive, perceiving and aggressive than the females of team sports.

*Mathew (1981)* made a comparative study of Kabaddi and Kho-Kho women players who were between 18-15 years. A sample of 40 each from the two games was drawn for the study. The study found that Kho-Kho players were shy, conservative and highly anxious. On the other hand, the Kabaddi players were venturesome, critical, self-sufficient, relaxed and aggressive with low anxiety.

*Suman Nangia (1991)* in her work entitled “Personality Characteristics of Indian Sportsperson” intended to fulfil the predetermined goals like identifying the personality factors associated with high and low performing sportsman and sportswomen in the games of Badminton and Table Tennis: (i) identifying the need patterns of the extremely high performers from that the low performers considering sex and game variables (ii) to find out the different variables, and also to find out the extremely high performers and low performers considering sex and game variables. The findings revealed that the high performers have obtained consistently high scores on intelligence, emotional stability, dominance, urgency and super ego strength as compared to the low performers. The study clearly indicated that there are very few
significant differences in the personality factors of male and female athletes; surprisingly girls had higher self-esteem than the male athletes.

*Gruber and Perkins (1978)* found in his study on women participation in intercollegiate competitions and their personality traits. The conclusion drawn reveal that the players appear to be sober (F) and tough minded (I) as compared with non-athletes. On the other hand, Williams (1978) observed that the successful female players were more assertive, dominant, self-sufficient, independent, aggressive, reserved, achievement oriented and have average emotionality than the unsuccessful female players. But the findings of Evans and Quarterman (1983) were found to be contrary to the findings of Gruber and Perkins (1978) that both successful and unsuccessful players of badminton sport were tough minded. However, the successful players were more trusting than the unsuccessful players.

*Gooch (1973)* made a comparative study of successful and unsuccessful women athletes and found that there was association between personality and physical performance of athletes.

*Malumpthy (1968) and Ogilive (1968)* conducted research studies on four groups of female athletes. The results revealed that the players of individual sports were more extroverted that those of team games.

Thus, a great deal of attention has been paid to the relationship of psychological factors especially personality variables with sports performance and delineating personality traits of athletes, differentiating among individuals by sport, level of success etc. In fact, a major dimension of the study of psychological aspects of sports is concerned with inquiries into the personality of sportsman. In an attempt
to study personality traits, Cooper (1969), found difference between athletes and non-athletes and described the athlete as; (i) more outgoing and socially confident; (ii) more socially aggressive, dominant, and leading; (iii) having higher social adjustment, prestige, social status and self-confidence (iv) stronger competitors (v) less compulsive (vi) less impulsive (vii) having greater tolerance to pain (viii) having lower feminine and higher masculine interests.

Spearling (1942) who used six assessment instruments to study college athletes and non-athletes, found results similar to those of Cooper (1969).

Niblock (1960) found female athletes to be more energetic enthusiastic efficient as possessing more leadership potential and were optimistic and more extroverts.

Chadwick (1972) found that female athletes were significantly more tough minded, practical, group dependent, suffered and less intelligent than non-athletic females. On the other hand, Ogilvie (1971) found male competitors to be basically emotionally healthy persons who tend towards extraversion. They were tough minded, self-assertive and self-confident with a high capacity to ensure the stress involved in high level competition.

William and her associates (1970) found that the male and female competitive race care drivers tend to be reserved, self-sufficient and have scored below average on affiliation and nurturance.

Newmann (1968) suggested that participation in high level athletes competition provides and adds a dimension to one’s personality. He found that
athletes were more sociable, more aggressive in their approach to problems, more self-confident, more critical of themselves and more extroverted than non-athletes. Barger (1969) compared the personality of football players and non-athletes. They found insignificant difference between outstanding football players, non-outstanding, athletes and non-athletes. Schendel (1965) found that the 9th grade athletes differed from the non-athletes on 8 of the CPI scales. Differences existed on 4 scores for the 12 the grade sample and nine differences were observed for the colleague subjects. Hence, he supported the view that athletes and non-athletes differ in personality structure. The same thing is also reported in a study of Malumphy (1968) in which the sports participants were found to be more conscientious and tough minded but less imaginative and less venture some than the non-sport participants.

*Berharm and Kroll (1967) and Dardin (1972)* have indicated that determination drive, nerve for aggressive instinct are the qualities that are expected to be found extra ordinarily in champion athletes. They have also shown that athletes of one sport differ from those of other sport and man athletes in their personality characteristics. Yeatra (1977) showed that a group of Inter colligates basketball players were more tough minded and group depended than non-athletes.

*Mohan et al. (1979)* found that the players were more extroverted that non players and low on Neuroticism implying more stability of emotionality.

*Golas (1971)* found athletes to be significantly more extroverted than the non-athletes and the sport groups did not differ on E dimension and none of the groups differed on the Neuroticism stability dimension too/
Dureha (1987) concluded that the sportsmen and non-sportsmen differ in their personality characteristics in some factors like “emotional stability and realism about life, cheerfulness and frankness, tender mindedness and practicability and great control over emotions and greater regards for self-respect and social reputation. Many other investigators have also reported that athletes could be differentiated from non-athletes with respect to their self-control (Bird, 1970) self-sufficient (Ogilive 1968), extroversion (Peterson et al., 1967; Bushan and Aggrawal, 1978), Dominance (Ammodit et al., 1982), locus of control (Mckelvie and Hushand, 1980), death anxiety (Kumar et al., 1985), self-esteem (Kumar et al., 1985) and mental health (Kumar et al.,1985).

Thakur and Thakur (1980) studied personality characteristics of athlete and non-athlete Indian college male using projective method of personality assessment and found that the characteristics associated with the athlete were happiness, cordial and affectionate, anxiety, achievement, dominance and superior organization capacity whereas, the characteristics associated with the non-athlete were guilt acquisitions, passivity, rejection, superior, imagination.

Singh and Singh (1986) found that the neuroticism tendency was significantly higher in the non-sports groups of students whereas no significant difference was observed in extraversion scores between the two groups. Little (1969) found that the athletic group was highly extroverted and sociable while the non-athlete group was characterized by introversion and lack of sociability.
According to Pierce (1969) athletes display fewer neurotic symptoms than non-athletes and concluded that athletes have constantly been found to differ from non-athletes on a number of personality traits.

Fletcher and Dowell (1971) reviewed research on the personality characteristics of the participants and non-participants in sports. The findings were re-examined in a study with 950 males who were enrolled in a physical education course. A negative relationship was found between activity level and difference order, abasement and endurance.

Koaning (1969) found that personality difference existed between athletes and non-athletes. Similarly, McClanney (1969) got significant difference between two groups of college men namely high fitness group and low fitness group in different personality factors. Kroll and Grandshaw (1968) investigated personality differences between sportsman and non-sportsman. Effect of sex (gender) and group behaviour on personality of athlete have been revealed in an number of studies (e.g. Peterson et al. 1967; Rushall, 1967; Meredith and Harris, 1969; Foster, 1972). Rushall (1967) while comparing personality characteristics of male swimmers with female swimmers found that females were socially bold, noisy and unrestrained in their behaviour, whereas males appeared to be self-centred and individualistic. It was also found that novice female swimmers were, in general, more introverted than a control group of female athletes, not primarily engaged in swimming (Meredith and Harris, 1969).

Considerable data have been presented regarding personality traits of female athletes. The personality structure of women athletes has been studied in the various sports such as fencing (Williams et at., 1970) basketball and gold (Johnson, 1972),
lacrosse (Mushier, 1970), swimming (Abraham, 1968; Kane, 1966; Ogilvie, 1968), track and field (Kane, 1968) and field hockey (Acampore, 1971; Johnson, 1972). These researchers compared personality traits across sports groups as well as compared team with individual sport participants (Hein, 1954; Niblock, 1960; Malumphy, 1968); studied outstanding athletes (Nela, 1963) and compared the women athletes with non-athletes (Foster, 1969; Kane, 1966). The results of these studies have generally shown that a few similar traits are being possessed by women athletes in various sports.


Mushier (1970) found that female athletes are significantly more reserved, intelligent, assertive, happy go lucky and tough minded than female non-athletes.

By considering team sports separately by categorizing athletes into one of three classes i.e., offensive, centre and defensive players, Kirkcaldy (1982) found that males in attacking positions (offensive players) were substantially higher in psychoticism (tough minded, dominant, aggressive) and extraversion as compared to mid field (centre), players, there being no difference between offensive and defensive participants. The attacking player, the forward, offensive players were less easily
differentiated from defensive players, the latter group exhibiting a more emotionally stable pattern than the offensive athlete. In females, the trend was somewhat reserved i.e., attacking players were less extraverted and more neurotic than players from other positions. No significant differences were found in the personality profiles of females’ athletes between different positions. Singh (1986) also found no sex difference in extraversion and neuroticism traits of personality in the athletic as well as hockey group.

A study of personality traits compared between men and women university players participating in inter collegiate team or individual sports was completed by Anderson (1977) on 315 undergraduate students, using California Psychological Inventory (CPI), Concluded that; (1) male and female athletes did not significantly differ from male and female non-athletes on the personality factors of pious ascendance, dominance capacity for status and sense of well-being. (2) male and female athletes did not significantly, maturity, responsibility, Self-control tolerance and good impression, (3) male and female did not significantly differ on the personality factor of achievement via., performance, independence and intellectual efficiency, (4) male and female athletes and non-athletes significantly differed on the personality factors of flexibility and femininity. These measures were also different for individual sports, team sports and non-participants. It was also concluded that the effects of type of activity were not same for two sexes nor were same for three types of activities.
A comparative study of personality between sportsmen and non-sportsmen of university level was conducted by Sahni, Sood and Mohan (1998). The result indicated that sportsmen scored significantly higher or Psychotism as compared to non-sportsmen. The results also clarified that sportsmen were higher on extroversion as compared to non-sportsmen.

The comparison of personality characteristics of 40 sportsmen and 40 non-sportsmen was done by Dureha (1987). The results indicated that the sportsmen and non-sportsmen differed significantly in their personality characteristics and frankness, tender mindedness and practicability, greater control over emotions and greater regards for self-respect and social reputation. These qualities could be attributed to the training received by the sportsmen and their active participation in sports competitions.

A study was conducted by Singer (1968) to assess the personality characteristics between the baseball and the tennis players and EPPS norms. Comparison was made between highest and lowest ranked athletes in both sports and the EPPS norms were also made. No difference were noted between high and low ranked baseball players and tennis players, only differed on one of the fifteen measures. The later investigation also found that high level performers were significantly more self-sufficient on the 16 personality factors than the normal population.

Selected personality characteristics of high school athletes and non-athletes were assessed by Fletcher and Dowell (1971) using EPPS and information checklist on 850 male college freshmen. Results indicated that athletes tended to score higher
on the traits dominance and aggression than the non-athletes, while non-athletes scored higher in personality traits order than the athletes.

The personality differences between 24 successful and 24 non-successful female volleyball players were examined in the study of Shergill (1991) using 16 PFO and STAI. The results of this study indicated that non successful players possessed the traits as humble nature, group dependent, reserved and having high results on state anxiety as compared to successful players. The successful players were trustworthy in nature; happy go lucky topy, ventures one, tense, conscious, controlled, shrewd and intelligent persons.

An experimental study of personality and drive as determinants of effect of noise on performance was done by Malhotra (1974) administering EPI to the 160 subjects. Findings indicated that: (a) Neuroticism did not affect the performance on any of the tasks. (b) There was no impact of noise except the one condition where the noise impairs the pre rest performance on the vigilance task in the case of the boys high on neuroticism and working under no noise condition. (c) Sex had not any role in the performance of these tasks as an independent variable (d) High score on neuroticism was detrimental to performance on the substitution task under noise condition (e) Noise improved the post rest performance on the substitution in the case of subjects low on neuroticism. (f) Introverts did better than extroverts on the post rest performance (g) Verbally inducted five as an independent variable did not effect the performance, (h) There was no impact of noise on performance as such on any of the two tasks (i) Extroversion interacted with the drive and affected post rest performance on the substitution task. With noise in interacted to affect post rest performance on the vigilance task.
A study on personality characteristics on Canadian, American and British samples was organized by *Skinner and Peters (1985)* administering the EPI to 170 male and 251 Anglophone Canadian university students. Results were compared with the scores of 347 British and 1003 undergraduates. Findings indicated higher extraversion and neuroticism scores among Canadian S than among British and American S, reinforcing the stereotype of Canadians as timid and cautious. Canadian females were more emotionally liable than their male counterparts; however, there were no sex differences in their extroversion scores. The personality and motor fitness differences between groups of 100 swimmers and 100 non swimmers were investigated by Williams (1970) using the Junior EPI Swimmers scored significantly higher on measures of extroversion and slightly higher in stability. It was concluded that extroversion was an important variable associated with learning to swim.

The study on the relationship between participation in sports and personality measures was conducted by *Eysenck, Nias and Cox (1982)*. Athletes were tended to be extroverted, low in neuroticism and anxiety and high on the Psychotism super ego variable. Factors that had been used to explain this profile include assertiveness, sensation seeking, competitiveness and a lack of control and inhibition of ongoing behaviour and immediate reactions. Evidence did not support the suggestion that sports activity may have a beneficial effect on personality, particularly in reduction anxiety and depression. Automobile during and sexual activity shared characteristics of sports and showed correlations with many of the same personality variables.

Personality profiles of 62 sportsmen and 62 non-sportsman were examined by *Mahamood (1981)*. The results indicated that sportsmen in comparison to non-sportsman were warm heated, outgoing and conservative in respects of established
ideas. This was relatively incongruent with the aggression, stubborn, uninhibited, touch minded and spontaneous behaviour of sportsmen as reflected in their high scores on E and H and Low score on I. However, these conflicting tendencies apparently made sportsmen self-assured, confident and relaxed in contrast to non-sportsmen who were found to be shy, timed, apprehensive and tense.

Multivariate personality profile analysis of four athletic groups as football players, wrestlers, gymnasts and karate athletes, was done by *Krol and Grandshaw* (1968). Football players and wrestlers had some aggressive tendencies and this statement had a well support. Perhaps participation in on sport strength and the desirable personality characteristics were the same for the other sports also where one was a team sport and other as individual sport. Why karate, an athlete and wrestler did not have similar personality profiles, was difficult to explain.

A study of personality differential of 32 selected and 32 non-selected university level scorer players was organized by *Sidhu and Sidhu* (1989). The analysis indicated that in 10 out of 16 factors, the results were significant. It is further reported that as player participated in more competitions, his personality improved accordingly.

The study on 221 male college students, in six physical education class, related to the games as fencing, basketball, boxing, swimming, volleyball and badminton, was conducted by *Flanagan (1951)* to measure personality traits and found that the fencers were more ascendant that the basketball players. Volleyball and badminton players were more masculine but the swimmers and the boxers scored higher in masculinity than the badminton and volleyball players. The volleyball
players were more masculine but the swimmers and the boxers scored high in masculinity than the badminton and the volleyball players. The volleyball players were more submissive, more introverted and less emotionally stable than members of the other groups.

*Schurr, K.T.; Ashley M.A. Joy, K.L. (1977)*, administered the 16 PF to 1,596 male college students and categorized them by (a) involvement in athletics, (b) type of sport and (c) level of success. Results support the contention that moderate variables involving sport type are of primary importance in the development of theory involving sports personality relationship.

*Reiss Steven. Vtilz, James, Sherman, Michael (2001)*, used two approaches for studying sports motivation. Personality theory and motivation theory were combined in a novel way that permitted as assessment of individual differences in 15 motivational traits. The Reiss profile of fundamental goals and motivational sensitivities was administered to 415 colleges students (aged 16 -41 years) who had participated in 0, 1 or 2 or more varsity sports at high school or college levels. How many sports a student participated in, called athleticism, was found to be associated with motivational traits for physical exercise, social contact, family life raising children, vengeance/competition, power/achievement, and with low curiosity. The results support the relevance of S. Reiss’ motives for studying sports motivation.

*According to Bandura Albert (1990)*, self-efficacy beliefs regulate human functioning through 4 major process cognitive, motivational, affective, and selection process. Efficacy beliefs are the product of a complex process of self-persuasion that relies on cognitive processing of diverse sources of efficacy activated processes and
on the self-efficacy mechanism in athletic accomplishments indicates that the SE mechanism plays a central role in the exercise of personal agency. It is noted that the value of a psychological theory is judged not only by its explanatory and predictive power, but also by its operational power to enhance the quality of human functioning. Social cognitive theory provides prescriptive specificity on how to empower people with the competencies, self-regulatory capabilities.

*Devi Balakrishnan and Dhandpani (1978)* attempts to find out the personality differences that might exist between athletes of track field and team sports on the three dimension viz., introversion, extraversion, neuroticism and psychoticism, proposed by Eysenck and Eysenck (1975). The sample consisted of 90 athletes, 30 for track sports, 30 for field sports and 30 for team sports. A one way analysis of variance and “t” test computed revealed team sports athletes on all the three dimensions.

**MOTIVATION:**

Motivation is fact reinforces action. A person who is better motivated is bound to achieve greater success than the one who has not been properly motivated if all other factors are equal. It asserts that two peoples engaged in same sports activity may react differently under the stress of winning and loosing and may express different feelings when taking about his participation in sports. The difference between the two lies in the degree or the extent to which each one has been motivated. Harvey investigated the relative effectiveness of three motivational techniques viz., Level of aspiration, team competition and level of aspiration and team competition combined on the performance of fourth and fifth grade boys and girls on shuttle run, dodging run. Basketball speed pass and overhead throw, scores of 92 boys and 91 girls were
subjected to analysis of variance with Ducan’s New Multiple Range test as post-hoc treatment. It was reported that the combined level at aspiration and team competition motivated techniques was found to be most effective in improving performance on the shuttle run, dodging run and basketball speed pass items, (Harvey and Deseter, 1971).

Barry’s subjects (N=120) randomly assigned to 4 groups, performed one isometric press 3 days a week for 6 weeks. The group treatments differed in the number of motivational techniques applied during training. After the final training test, all subjects were tested under special motivational situation resembling an athletic contest. The training and test under contest-like condition showed significant gains in all groups over those achieved during training. Students above and below average in their initial strength responded similarly to the motivational techniques (Johnson Barry. L.,1966).

Robert selected randomly eighty boys selected each of a age levels (7-8, 10-11, 13-14 and 16-17 years). They were subjected to a test for muscular endurance of the right arm with an ergo graph and the results were used to equate 3 treatment groups and a control group. The test was verbal encouragement and the reproof groups were subject to verbal disparagement during the latter part of the test. The aspiration groups set hope for goals after being told their initial score. The control group had the initial instructions repeated. Analysis of co-variance showed that verbal encouragement, verbal discouragement and level at aspiration were all highly effective (0.01) motivators for 7-8 and 10-11 year olds. No motivational variable was significantly effective with the other 2 age groups. No significant difference was found between the variables. So they seemed equally effective motivators (Robert Wilkinson, 1966). Many investigators have tried to establish the positive role of
motivational devices in increasing the performance of athletes on various motor components. Johnson and Nelson (1967) have tested the effect of different motivational techniques on the performance of strength – A motor component. 120 subjects who were tested on as isometric press exercise showed that motivational promoted significant strength gains, but no deliberate or conscious motivational technique were applied to the control group. Thus, the study proved the effect of motivation on strength performance.

In another study, Ryon (1961) tested the effect of selected motivational technique on grip strength in four matched sub-groups. He found that the improvement of performance in all motivated group was significantly greater than that of non-motivated group.

Nelson (1962) has compared the effect of various motivational situations on endurance. The improvement in performance of all motivated group was significantly greater than that of the controlled group, which was not motivated. However, he noticed no one motivational technique statistically superior to the others. Hence, motivations have a positive influence of performance. They very presence of motivation is extremely in improving one’s performance on various motor components.

Travis (1925) used a pursuit rotor apparatus to test eye hand co-ordination in tracking. Each subject received 20 trails a day until his learning curve had levelled off on the next days, after the supposed maximum performance had been reached as evidence of improved performance from 4 to 8 people score with and without the audience were compared. An 81.8% improvement on the average was noted in
performance with the audience. This indicates that presence of the audience as one of the motivational devices brings about an added improvement in the performance of a person on various motor tasks.

Triplett, attempted to determine the effect of an audience on motor performance. Subjects performed a real winding task and performed in bicycle races and were found to be influenced in various ways by the presence of others. The investigator concluded that in general, the bodily presence of an audience seemed to liberate latent energy and stimulate the performer to greater effort.

The theory was upheld in an experiment undertaken by Singer. Sixteen Ohio State University athletes from a variety of sports and sixteen non-athletes learned how to balance on a stablio-meter. The entire subjects were given 10 trials to learn the task with only the investigator present. The next day, they were allowed three more trials alone and the three trials before a group of passive spectators. The three trials in the presence of others actually resulted in generally poorer performance than on the trial immediately preceding which was executed without the audience. In addition, the non-athletes performed better than the athletes on two of the three trials performed in front of the spectators (1968). Further, Singer has compared performance of stabile-meter in the presence of spectator on athletes and non-athletes and he observed that the middleclass person usually has a higher motivation for achievement than the lower-class person, in spite of the fact that the athletics provides and vehicle for social mobility (1968).

Kamlesh studied the effect of various motivational devices on different individuals. It is often seen that a factor, which (for example: the hope of getting a
certificate or a pair of shoes if one shows good performance) motivates a poor child to take more interest in the activity, may not be equally effective in case of a child coming from a well-to-do family. Children coming from rural areas are motivated by such things as they have not come across in the countryside while the children from the urban areas by those things which they have never experienced in the city setting. For example, a rural boy with good health would not hesitate getting into a vigorous game without much coaxing but the urban boy may need greater incentive to be motivated to take to a game in which chances of injury are more (1983). Further, he has motivated to those people who have nervous about an upcoming race; Lock over your training log. Remember how dedicated you have been and how for you have come in your training. Tell yourself “I am well trained, rested and ready to do my best. Thus, such verbal inspiration proved to be effective in achieving excellence”.

Zajonc (1965) observed that well learned or simple responses are facilitated by the presence of spectators or co-actors while the acquisition of new responses is impaired. He concluded that more presence of audience enhances the emission of the dominant response.

Landers and McCullagh (1976) pointed that effect of audience on motor performance depends to a great deal on the nature of the task. He concluded that simple speed and power tasks are generally facilitated by presence of an audience, while continuous, fine control accuracy tasks are also facilitated but late in the learning process.

Hunt and Hillery (1973) concluded that the presence of co-actors had a facilitative effect upon the dominant response, hindering performance when the
dominant response was incorrect and facilitating performance when the dominant response was correct.

*Martens and landers (1969)* observed that a leg extension, muscular endurance task was enhanced when subject performed in groups of four instead of single or in pairs.

*Brown (1926)* concluded that attitudinal and motivational characteristics were of potentially greater importance than the purely mechanical procedures of studying.

*Zimmerman-Burry (1988)* explained that self-regulatory process are not only impute during subsequent performance of it is naturalistic settings. Beneficial effect of self-regulated studying recounted academic motivational as well as achievement.

**SELF CONFIDENCE:**

There are so many studies in India in relation with self and its correlates viz., self-esteem, self-confidence, personally perceived self, socially perceived self, level of aspiration, attribution, and adjustment, social intelligence etc. In this connection some studies are reviewed.

*Maya Deb (1985)* administered test to measure personality variables and adjustment to 45 females (aged 18-20 years) attending 1st year degree classes at a college in Calcutta, India. Results indicate that emotional maturity, introversion. Self-awareness, self-confidence, sociability and achievement motivation are significantly associated with difference dimensions of adjustment.
Sudhakara Reddy M (1983) studies self-confidence in relation with achievement and found that self-confident was positively correlated with academic motivation and academic achievement.

Basavanna (1971) studied self-confidence in relation with self and ideal self and found that self-confidence people particularly who were capable. Successful and adjusted, had significantly higher self-ideal, self-congruence than those who were low in their level of self-confidence. Around (1975) in her study tested the relationship between self-confidence and social intelligence and found positive correlation between these two.

SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS (SES):

The socio-economic status has been recognized as a decisive factor in sports participation of the various kinds of sportsmen, because it is this factor that exercises a decisive influence on any individual performance and achievement in sports. The higher the social level of the sports persons the higher the degree of excellence which he or she achieves in sports. Moreover the influence of socio-economic background was seen over in the number of players coming forward to participate in sports from two major areas namely the urban area and rural area. Large number of sports persons came forward from the urban areas, while those who come forward from the rural areas are small in number.

A board critical survey reveals that the sports from the upper social levels are large in number than those belonging to the lower social levels. There may be many causes for this. Obviously the well to do sections has greater leisure, ampler resources and easier access to all the essential facilities that help youngsters to participate in sports. So, it
can be easily stated that the socio-economic background is a potent and decisive factor in impelling youngsters to choose sports activities and also to choose certain kinds of sports. Apparently, all the players seems to be equally competent but a careful critical in depth analysis of the factor on the basis of certain objective observations and findings reveals that the choice of sports and the choice of certain sports by youngsters is not a simple phenomenon but that it is deeply connected with the socio-economic background of the sportsman.

The social class to which a youngster belongs decisively influences psychologically his or her personality development. This influence continues to be present throughout one’s life. In short, the finding of the studies carried out in western countries has emphasized the importance of the socio-economic status as a determining factor in the development of sports. This reveals the point that the socio-economic status is a decisive factor irrespective of countries.

*Cratty (1967)* on the basis of several studies observed that the economic circumstances do influence the availability of equipment and facilities. Moreover, the size of the play yard and the number of the pieces of play equipment are positively related to the size of the family income and there is a corresponding relationship between the activity level and socio-economic conditions. It is to be realized that more and more data has been emerging from studies carried out in this area related to the comparative fitness of children within various socio-economic groups. It is very clear from the above remarks of Cratty that the socio-economic status of the families and players, in particular plays a vital role in the development of the sports activity and subsequent performance.
**Suidontop (1984)** stated in his study that the social level influences the acquisition of motor skills. Moreover, social approval has been found to facilitate the performance of youngsters from the lower status families and that disapproval impairs these performances. More than that, it affects the youngsters from the middle socio-economic status families. It is evident that reinforcement of the socio-economic level directly influences the acquisition of motor skills. There is a deep and inalienable connection between the socio-economic background and the performance of sports persons in their respective sports activities.

**Reason (1978)** in an analysis of the system of social stratification in Belgium, has noticed that higher class sports such as skying, golf, field hockey, tennis and fencing are all characterized by higher game such as rowing, horse riding, climbing, hunting diving are the natural sports of the upper middle class. The game like basketball, volleyball, ball badminton and table tennis are from the lower middle class sports, while the lower class sports are gymnastics, calisthenics, track and field, boxing, soccer and finishing.

**Sorenson (1954)** reveals that the higher socio-economic level enables parents to provide generator nourishment and encouragement to the ego of their children. And the children from this class besides possessing confidence feel socially and economically more secure and they have fewer worries. They are also more aggressive and dominant on the average than the children of less favoured socio-economic levels. The socially and economically favoured children possess more social poise and greater interest in music and other arts.
Ross (1955) study also reveals the same that the social factors, the students income and fathers education proved to be the strongest factors of influence on the rate of participation by the students in their respective recreational activities of sports and games.

**RESEARCH QUESTIONS:**

The following research questions were raised and attempts were made to answer them:

1. What is the effect of SES on athletic performance?
2. Is there any effect of personality on performance of players?
3. Is there any influence of motivation on performance?
4. Is there any effect of self-confidence on the athletic performance?
5. Are there any significant sport differences with regard to age and sex belongingness of the sample?

**SIGNIFICANCE OF STUDY:**

The present investigation attempts to understand significant impact of certain psychological variables like motivation, sports personality and self-confidence on the performance of the players. It also attempts to study the effect of SES on athletic performance. It is well understood that psychological factors are highly related to sports performance. Knowing the significant effect of factors, a sports psychologist and coaches can manipulate these factors to improve the performance of players. This application is a significant and prominent contribution to the field of sports in relation to athletic events.